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## Fabrication and characterization of TiO<sub>2</sub>-based dye-sensitized solar cells

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**Abstract:** Dye-sensitized solar cells TiO<sub>2</sub> with were fabricated. The phase composition and microstructures of the solar cells were examined by X-ray diffractometry and transmission electron microscopy, and the energy levels of the present solar cells were also discussed. The results show that a solar cell mixed with xylene orange and rose Bengal shows a higher conversion efficiency compared to solar cells with a single dye. An introduction of amorphous TiO<sub>2</sub> layers results in an improvement of the conversion efficiency.

**Key words:** solar cell; TiO<sub>2</sub>; dye; porphyrin; microstructure

### 1 Introduction

Electrical energy storage systems have been developed[1], and solar cells are one of the good candidate clean energy devices because of no production of carbon dioxide causing global warming[2–3]. Although silicon (Si) solar cells have high conversion efficiency and a long lifetime, their production processes are complicated and expensive.

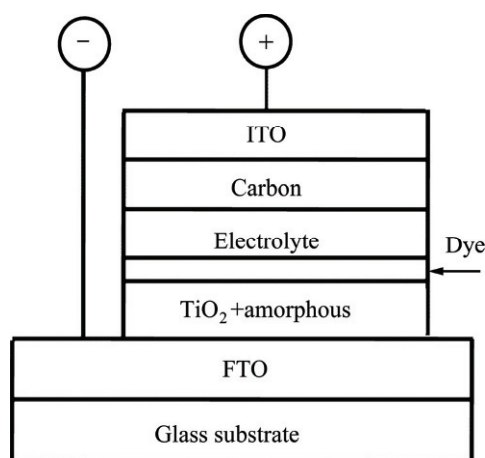
Dye-sensitized solar cells, based on the concept of photo-sensitization of wide band-gap mesoporous oxide semiconductors[4], are now in a state of advanced development. This technology has been established as a promising low-cost photovoltaic concept[5], and has featured applications that can be colored and are lightweight. However, dye-sensitized solar cells have a short lifetime due to leakage and vaporization of the electrolytes. Therefore, the studies of solidification of dye-sensitized solar cells have been performed[6–7], and organic dyes without noble metals are expected as low-cost dyes.

The purpose of the present work is to investigate electrical and optical properties of dye-sensitized solar cells (DSSC), with an amorphous TiO<sub>2</sub> layer to introduce electrons at trap levels in acceptor and donor levels. The effects of organic dyes addition such as protoporphyrin IX (PPIX), xylene orange (XO) and rose Bengal (RB) to dye-sensitized solar cells were fabricated and characterized.

### 2 Experimental

The schematic illustrations of the present solar cells are shown in Fig.1. Nanocrystalline TiO<sub>2</sub> photoelectrodes were prepared using the following procedure. TiO<sub>2</sub> powder was dispersed in an aqueous solution (1 mL) in a mixture of acetylacetone (0.02 mL, Sigma Aldrich Inc.) with Triton X-100 (0.01 mL, ICN Biomedicals Inc.) with polyethylene glycol (0.2 g, PEG#20 000, Nacalai Tesque Co. Ltd.)[8–9]. The TiO<sub>2</sub> paste was coated on pre-cleaned FTO by the squeegee method. After the TiO<sub>2</sub> coating, the FTO substrate was sintered for 30 min at 450 °C, and the prepared titanium isopropoxide (TTIP) solution dropped on the substrate. After that, the substrate was sintered for 60 min at 180 °C. The TTIP solution was prepared by mixing TTIP (0.3 mL, Sigma Aldrich Co. Ltd.), acetylacetone (0.08 mL), ethanol (0.64 mL) and PEG# 20 000 (0.2 g, Nacalai Tesque Co. Ltd.). The TiO<sub>2</sub> electrodes were dissolved into the solved organic dyes such as, protoporphyrin (Aldrich Co. Ltd.), xylene orange and rose Bengal solutions (Tokyo Chemical Industry Co. Ltd.) in distilled water, methanol or ethanol (Nacalai Tesque Co. Ltd.)[10–12]. Bellfine (0.1 g, Air Water Inc.) and Denka black (0.02 g, Denki Kagaku Kogyo Co. Ltd.) as carbon was dispersed in the distilled water (0.8 mL) and ethanol (0.4 mL) with sodium carboxymethyl cellulose (0.012 g, Tokyo Chemical Industry Co. Ltd.)[13]. The carbon paste was applied on indium tin oxide (ITO, Geomatec Co. Ltd.) as

an opposite electrode by the squeegee method. The heat treatment of the carbon on the ITO substrate was carried out at 180 °C for 30 min. The electrolyte fabricated in a mixture of iodine (0.05 g I<sub>2</sub>, Wako Co. Ltd.), lithium iodide (0.09 g LiI, Wako Co. Ltd.), ethylene carbonate (0.41 g, Sigma Aldrich Inc.), propylene carbonate (0.5 mL, Sigma Aldrich Inc.) and polyacrylonitrile (0.17 g, Sigma Aldrich Inc.) was agitated and heated at 80 °C[14]. The dye-sensitized solar cells were assembled by putting the electrolyte between the adsorbed dye materials at the TiO<sub>2</sub> layer on the FTO glass substrate and the carbon film on the ITO substrate.



**Fig.1** Structures of dye-sensitized solar cells with dyes

The current density–voltage ( $J$ – $\phi$ ) characteristics (Hokuto Denko Corp., HSV–100) of the solar cells were measured both in the dark and under illumination at 100 mW/cm<sup>2</sup> by using an AM 1.5 solar simulator (San-ei Electric, XES–301S) in N<sub>2</sub> atmosphere. The solar cells were illuminated through the side of the FTO substrates, and the illuminated area was 0.16 cm<sup>2</sup>. The optical absorption of the solar cells was investigated by means of UV-visible spectroscopy (Hitachi U–4100). The microstructures of the thin films were investigated by wide X-ray diffractometry (XRD, PHILIPS X’Pert-MPD System) with CuK<sub>α</sub> radiation operating at 40kV and 40mA, scanning electron microscopy (SEM, Hitachi S-3200N), energy dispersive X-ray analysis (EDX, EMAX–5770W) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM, Hitachi H–8100).

### 3 Results and discussion

Measured cell performance of DSSCs is summarized as Table 1. Experimental parameters of open circuit voltage ( $\phi_{oc}$ ), short circuit current ( $J_{sc}$ ), fill factor and conversion efficiency ( $\eta$ ) are listed in Table 1. A normal DSSC with PPIX provided an efficiency of  $2.3 \times 10^{-3}$ .

A TEM image and an electron diffraction pattern of the DSSC with PPIX are shown in Figs.2(a) and 2(b), respectively. The TEM image indicates TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles with sizes of 20–60 nm, and the electron diffraction pattern shows 101, 103 and 200 reflections of a tetragonal TiO<sub>2</sub> anatase phase. A high-resolution electron microscopy (HREM) image of an interface of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles is shown in Fig.2(c). The interface is directly connected in atomic scale, which would results in good carrier transport between TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles. A HREM image of surface of the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticle is shown in Fig.2(d), and the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticle is covered by a 2 nm thick PPIX layer with an amorphous structure.

**Table 1** Measured parameters of DSSCs

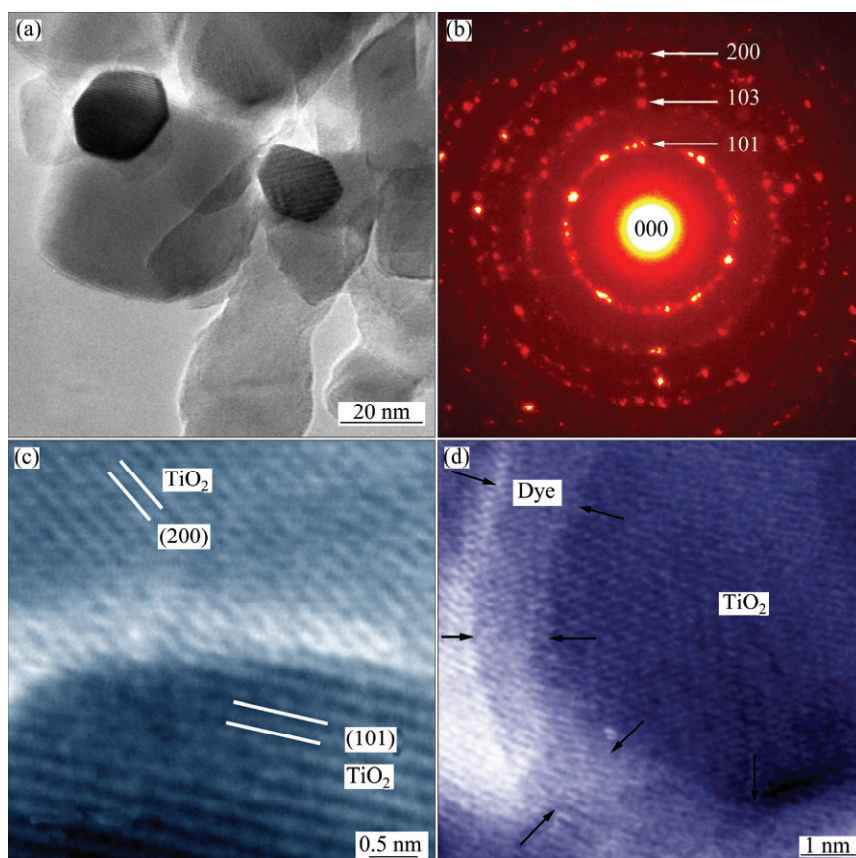
Sample	$\phi_{oc}/$ V	$J_{sc}/$ (mA·cm <sup>-2</sup> )	Fill factor	$\eta/$ %
PPIX	0.091	0.088	0.29	$2.3 \times 10^{-3}$
XO + RB without amorphous TiO <sub>2</sub>	0.36	0.60	0.56	0.12
XO + RB with amorphous TiO <sub>2</sub> layer	0.33	0.83	0.58	0.16

Figure 3 shows an energy level diagram of the present DSSC with PPIX.  $\phi_{oc}$  of the present DSSC would be related with the energy gap ( $E_g$ ) between HOMO of PPIX and conduction band of TiO<sub>2</sub>. The control of the energy gap is important for improving the efficiency. The light irradiation causes charge-separation at PPIX, and the electrons are transferred to conductive band of TiO<sub>2</sub>. The holes at HOMO level of PPIX lead to conversion of  $\Gamma^-$  to  $\Gamma^{3-}$  in the electrolyte, and  $\Gamma^-$  reduced the oxidized porphyrin to porphyrin with normal valence.

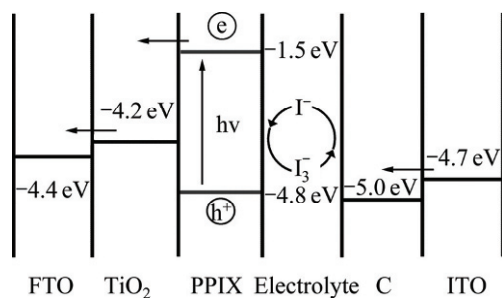
The measured  $J$ – $\phi$  curves of DSSC with or without an amorphous TiO<sub>2</sub> layer are shown in Fig.4. It can be seen that the current density of DSSC with an amorphous TiO<sub>2</sub> layer was higher than that of DSSC without an amorphous TiO<sub>2</sub> layer. The cell performance is summarized in Table 1. The current density is improved from 0.6 to 0.83 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>. The other parameters are almost the same. As a result, the conversion efficiency is improved from 0.12 % to 0.16 %.

Figure 5 shows the measured optical absorption of DSSC with an amorphous TiO<sub>2</sub> layer compared to that without an amorphous TiO<sub>2</sub> layer. An optical absorption peak of TiO<sub>2</sub> around 360 nm is increased by introducing the amorphous TiO<sub>2</sub> layer.

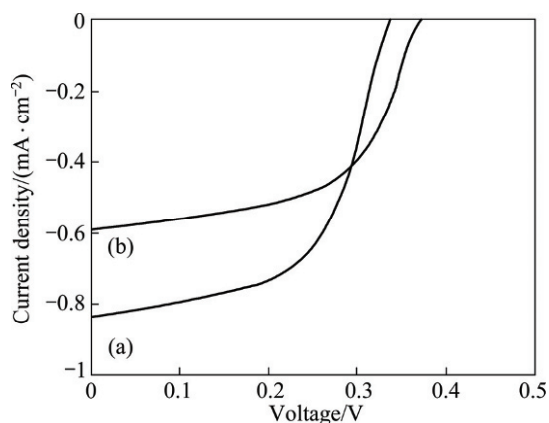
Figure 6 shows XRD patterns of TiO<sub>2</sub> layers prepared from the TTIP solution as a function of temperature. No peak of an anatase phase is observed when annealing at 250 °C. The small peaks of the anatase phase are observed after annealing at 350 °C. The diffraction peaks of TiO<sub>2</sub> (P25) are shown for comparison with the amorphous TiO<sub>2</sub>.



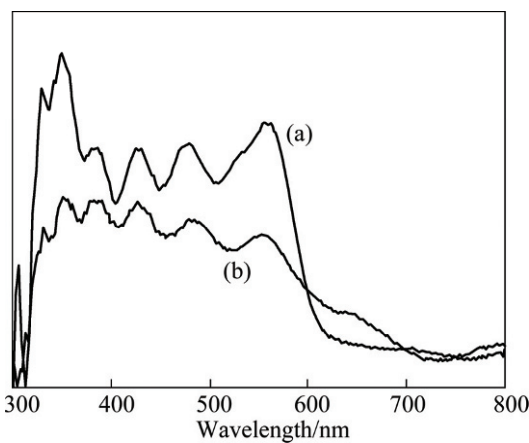
**Fig.2** TEM image (a) and electron diffraction pattern of TiO<sub>2</sub> DSSC with protoporphyrin (b), HREM images of interface (c) and surface (d) of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles



**Fig.3** Energy level diagram of present DSSC with PPIX



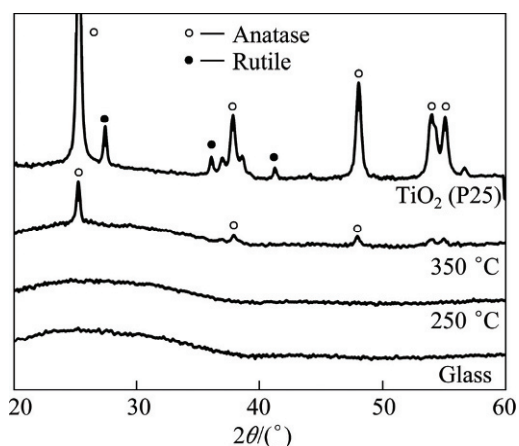
**Fig.4** Current density—voltage curves of DSSCs with (a) or without (b) amorphous TiO<sub>2</sub> layer



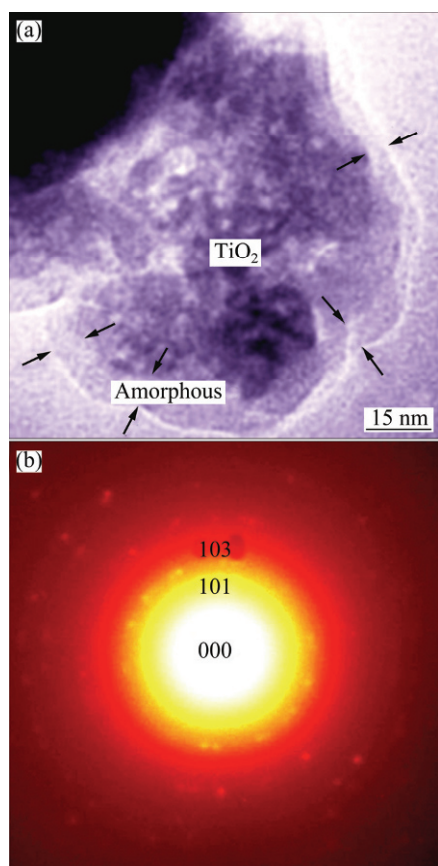
**Fig.5** Optical absorption of DSSCs with (a) or without (b) amorphous TiO<sub>2</sub> layer

Figure 7 shows a TEM image and an ED pattern of the amorphous TiO<sub>2</sub> layer. The amorphous TiO<sub>2</sub> layer around the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticle is observed in the TEM image. As shown in Fig.7(b), the EDS pattern indicates 101 and 103 reflections of the polycrystalline coagulation of TiO<sub>2</sub> with a tetragonal anatase structure. The diffuse ring of an amorphous phase is also observed, which indicates that the structure of the TiO<sub>2</sub> layer is a mixture of anatase and amorphous phases.





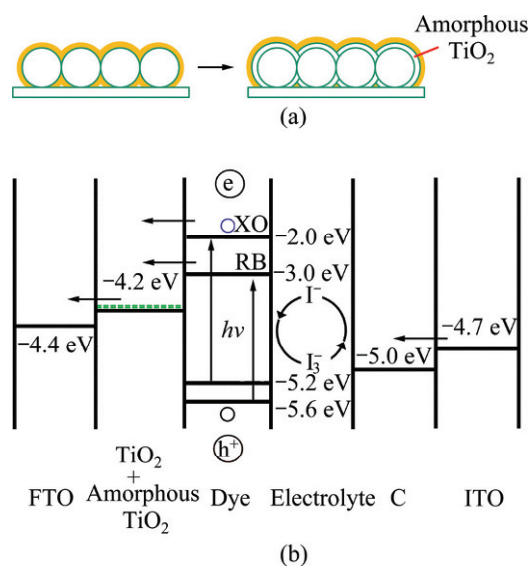
**Fig.6** XRD diffraction patterns of  $\text{TiO}_2$  layers as function of temperatures



**Fig.7** TEM image (a) and ED pattern (b) of amorphous  $\text{TiO}_2$  layer

An energy level diagram of DSSC with the amorphous  $\text{TiO}_2$  layer is shown in Fig.8. The values of HOMO and LUMO were calculated by Gaussian03 (B3LYP/6–31G\*). An energy barrier would exist at the semiconductor metal interface. The electronic charge generation is caused by light irradiation from the FTO substrate side. The  $\text{TiO}_2$  layer or amorphous  $\text{TiO}_2$  layer receives the electrons from the dye, and the electrons are trapped by several trap levels of the amorphous  $\text{TiO}_2$ .

The electrons are transported to an FTO electrode through the  $\text{TiO}_2$  layer, and electrons are transferred to the outside circuit, and flow through the carbon electrode. Then, electrons return to the electrolyte by oxidation-reduction reaction. The improvement of the present solar cells is due to the introduction of the amorphous  $\text{TiO}_2$  electrode, and this structure should be investigated further. The carrier recombination would be a main cause for low conversion efficiency. The improvement of the conversion efficiency can be expected by improving the charge separation and the electronic charge transfer.



**Fig.8** Schematic diagram (a) of  $\text{TiO}_2$  electrode with amorphous  $\text{TiO}_2$  layer and energy level diagram (b) of present DSSC with amorphous  $\text{TiO}_2$  layer

The improvements of the conversion efficiency by coating materials on  $\text{TiO}_2$  have been reported. The insulator oxides such as  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  or  $\text{SiO}_2$  on  $\text{TiO}_2$  have been introduced for DSSCs [15]. These oxides suppress carrier recombination by reverse transfer of electrons in the cells. In the present study, DSSCs with amorphous  $\text{TiO}_2$  layers on  $\text{TiO}_2$  were fabricated, and the amorphous  $\text{TiO}_2$  would attract electrons because of many trap levels in the acceptor and donor levels. In addition, the effectiveness of carrier separation is high because of large contact area. Further improvement would be possible by introducing nanoparticles as light harvesting materials[16–17].

## 4 Conclusions

1) Amorphous  $\text{TiO}_2$  was introduced into DSSC with mixed xylenol orange and rose Bengal. The optical absorption peak of  $\text{TiO}_2$  around 360 nm was increased by introducing the amorphous  $\text{TiO}_2$  layer. Diffraction spots of the anatase phase and a diffuse ring from the amorphous phase were observed.

2) The proposed energy diagram showed that the amorphous  $\text{TiO}_2$  would attract electrons at several trap levels in the  $\text{TiO}_2$  layers. In addition, the carrier separation is high, which would be due to large contact area. As a result, the current density is improved from  $0.60 \text{ mA/cm}^2$  to  $0.83 \text{ mA/cm}^2$ , and the conversion efficiency is improved.

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